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ALTHOUGH THE AVERAGE STANDARD OF LIVING OF FARM PEOPLE HAS BEEN RISING STEADILY, THEY CONTINUE TO FACE SEVERE PROBLEMS OF UNDEREMPLOYMENT AND POVERTY. THE AVERAGE PER CAPITA INCOME OF FARM RESIDENTS IS LESS THAN TWO-THIRDS THAT OF THE NONFARM POPULATION. MILLIONS HAVE MOVED TO CITIES, LEAVING STAGNATING RURAL COMMUNITIES, AND INCREASING THE CITY SLUM POPULATION. TO INCREASE FARM EMPLOYMENT, HIRING OF FOREIGN WORKERS HAS BEEN SHARPLY CURTAILED, AND MOBILE TEAMS OF STATE AND FEDERAL GOVERNMENT OFFICIALS HAVE INITIATED RECRUITMENT PROGRAMS FOR PLACING UNEMPLOYED AND COLLEGE YOUTH, AMERICAN INDIANS, PUERTO RICANS, AND OTHERS. BOTH EMPLOYMENT TIME AND WAGE RATES HAVE INCREASED IN AREAS WHERE FOREIGN WORKERS FORMERLY WERE USED. THE VOCATIONAL TRAINING ACT OF 1963, THE MANPOWER DEVELOPMENT AND TRAINING ACT, THE AREA REDEVELOPMENT ACT OF 1961, THE RURAL AREAS DEVELOPMENT PROGRAM, MANY WAR ON POVERTY PROGRAMS, NEIGHBORHOOD YOUTH CORPS PROGRAMS, AND OTHERS HELP TO ALLEVIATE THE NEEDS OF THE FARMWORKER. THERE SHOULD BE CONTINUED RURAL EDUCATION, ECONOMIC AND JOB DEVELOPMENT IN RURAL AREAS, REGULARIZATION OF EMPLOYMENT FOR FARMWORKERS, FURTHER REDUCTION OF FOREIGN LABOR, LEGISLATION PROVIDING LABOR STANDARDS AND INCOME SECURITY FOR FARMWORKERS, BETTER WORKER HOUSING, AND HELP FOR FARM TO NONFARM MIGRANTS. MORE RESEARCH IS NEEDED TO DETERMINE THE CHARACTERISTICS AND PROBLEMS OF RURAL FARM AND NONFARM PEOPLE IN DEVELOPING EFFECTIVE PROGRAMS TAILORED TO THEIR SPECIAL NEEDS, AND IDENTIFY ANTICIPATED TECHNOLOGICAL CHANGES IN AGRICULTURE IN ADVANCE OF PLANNED MANPOWER EDUCATIONAL PROGRAMS THAT WILL AID DISPLACED WORKERS. A COMPREHENSIVE REVIEW OF AGRICULTURE POLICIES, NEEDS, AND PROGRAM DEVELOPMENT IS EXPECTED AS A RESULT OF THE RECENT PRESIDENTIAL APPOINTMENT OF THE NATIONAL ADVISORY COMMISSION ON FOOD AND FIBER AND THE COMMISSION ON RURAL POVERTY. THIS DOCUMENT IS A REPRINT FROM THE "1966 MANPOWER REPORT" (VT 001 162) AND IS AVAILABLE FROM MANPOWER ADMINISTRATION, OFFICE OF MANPOWER POLICY, EVALUATION, AND RESEARCH, U.S. DEPARTMENT OF LABOR, 14TH STREET AND CONSTITUTION AVENUE, N.W., WASHINGTON, D.C. 20210. (WB)

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FARMWORKERS

A REPRINT FROM THE 1966 MANPOWER REPORT

U. S. DEPARTMENT OF LABOR - W. Willard Wirtz, Secretary - Manpower Administration

CONTENTS

FARMWORKERS

	Page
Agricultural manpower requirements	120
Short-term nature of farm jobs	121
Number and size of farms	122
Shifts in crop location and production	122
Farm incomes and wage rates	123
Income of farm operators	123
Earnings of hired farmworkers	124
Farm population trends	125
Movement from farms	125
Changing characteristics of the farm population	126
Projected farm population	126
The agricultural work force	126
Farm operators and unpaid family workers	127
Composition of the hired farm work force	127
Migratory farmworkers	128
Reduction in employment of foreign workers	131
Termination of Public Law 78	132
Expanded recruitment efforts	134
Effects of reduced use of foreign workers	135
Future prospects	135
New resources for training and job and community development	136
Vocational education for farm people	136
Training for the unemployed and underemployed	136
Programs to expand job opportunities	138
War on Poverty programs	140
Conclusions and recommendations	143
Education and training	143
Economic and job development in rural areas	144
Regularization of employment for farmworkers	144
Further reduction of foreign labor and intensified recruitment programs	144
Labor standards and income security for farmworkers	145
Farmworker housing	146
Migration from farm to nonfarm areas	146
Research and planning	146

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The President sends to the Congress each year a report on the Nation's manpower as required by the Manpower Development and Training Act of 1962. Published together in that report are the *Manpower Report of the President* and an accompanying comprehensive report from the Secretary of Labor on manpower requirements, resources, utilization, and training.

This is a reprint of the chapter on Farmworkers from the Secretary of Labor's report. The chapter was prepared in the Department of Labor with the collaboration of the Department of Agriculture's Economic Research Service and assistance from a number of other Government agencies.

Information regarding reprints of other sections of the *1966 Manpower Report* may be obtained at the locations listed on the back cover.

7

FARMWORKERS

American agriculture has been the source of some of the Nation's greatest economic and social achievements. Sweeping advances in farm technology have brought large gains in the production of food and fiber over the years—increases amounting to almost 50 percent since the end of World War II. The country's agricultural output not only supplies most of the food and fiber needed by our rapidly expanding population but helps to feed people in other countries as well.

While still relatively low, the average standard of living of farm people has been rising steadily. Today, a substantial proportion of all farm families have electricity, telephones, automobiles, and tap water. Their rising level of educational attainment, together with the widespread availability of radio and television, has brought their aspirations, knowledge, and customs into the mainstream of American life.

Nevertheless, farm people continue to face severe problems of underemployment and poverty. The average per capita income of farm residents is less than two-thirds that of the nonfarm population. The very abundance of farm production has created downward pressures on farm prices and incomes, requiring Government action to stabilize prices and production of some crops.

The wages and working conditions of hired farmworkers are generally far below those of nonfarm workers, and such workers are generally excluded from the protective social insurance and labor standards legislation which cover most of the nonagricultural work force. Beset by unemployment and underemployment, many farmworkers travel from area to area to get enough work to earn a livelihood.

These problems have forced farm operators, hired farmworkers, and their families to make major adjustments. Millions have left their farm homes to seek a new life and a new livelihood in urban areas, while a substantial number of smaller farmers have become hired farmworkers. This mass migration has left in its wake hundreds of stagnating rural communities. It has also intensified, in the receiving cities, the problems of slum areas overcrowded with new arrivals attempting to adjust to urban life and work.

In the past, such large-scale adjustments have been worked out eventually through the uncoordinated decisions of millions of workers and employers responding to the pressures of the competitive job market. Recent Government manpower programs reflect the need for a more rationalized approach to the development and use of human resources and to the changing manpower requirements of both agricultural and nonagricultural industries. They also reflect a national determination to ameliorate the social and economic problems accompanying these changes—problems too complex and broad in scope to be solved by the affected workers, employers, and local communities.

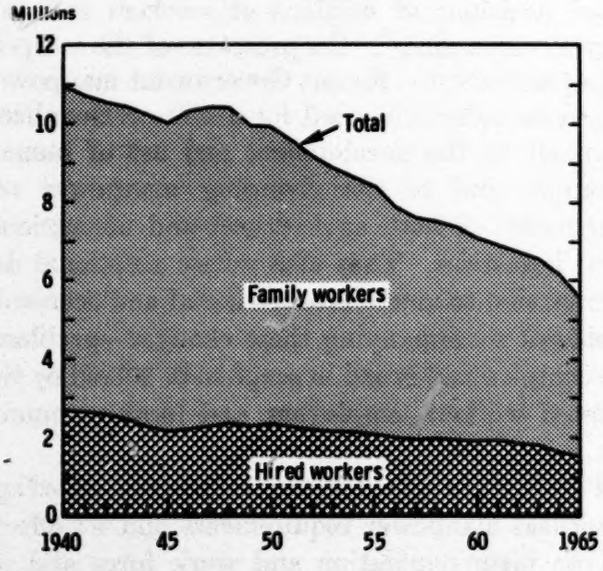
This chapter considers the transformation of agricultural manpower requirements and its effects on the farm population and work force and on rural and urban communities. It discusses the Government programs which are helping to cushion the adjustments of the people and areas af-

fected, with emphasis on the new manpower programs initiated during the 1960's. The final section considers the need for new or expanded Government services aimed at eliminating the paradox of simultaneous abundance and poverty in American agriculture.

Agricultural Manpower Requirements

Underlying the transformation of agricultural manpower requirements over the years are basic trends in agriculture's structure, processes, and relative position in the economy. The most dramatic trend has been the marked decline of farm manpower requirements in the face of rapidly rising output. Man-hours of farmwork fell by more than half between 1947 and 1965, while farm output increased over 40 percent. In 1965, the average farmworker produced enough food and fiber to supply himself and 36 other consumers; 20 years ago, he supplied only 15 persons. Annual average employment on farms—including farm operators, unpaid family workers, and hired workers—fell from 10 million in 1945 to 5.6 in 1965, or about 45 percent.[1] (See chart 18.)

Chart 18 **Farm employment has shown steady decline, especially for family workers.**



Source: U.S. Department of Labor, based on data from U.S. Department of Agriculture.

The sharpest drop occurred in the number of farm operators and unpaid family workers—from 7.9 million in 1945 to 4.1 million in 1965, or by 48 percent. Average employment of hired workers decreased more slowly—from 2,120,000 to less than 1,500,000, or 30 percent. But hired workers put in fewer days of work now, on the average, than they did years ago.

The main cause of declining manpower requirements has been new technology, particularly mechanization. The number of tractors and motor trucks on farms has doubled since World War II. Ingenious new machines to cultivate and harvest crops, such as the cotton harvester, have come into general use. Four-fifths of the cotton crop was harvested by machine in 1965, compared with less than one-tenth in 1950.

Mechanization has reduced the number of farm jobs by requiring less labor per acre and per farm animal, by providing an economic stimulus for combining farms into fewer and larger units that use labor more efficiently, and by transferring some former farm tasks to nonfarm industries. For example, man-hours involved in producing and feeding work animals have, in effect, been transferred to nonagricultural establishments producing and servicing farm machinery.

Labor needs have also been reduced by the use of modern chemicals to stimulate and control plant growth, increase crop yields, and control

[1] Data on farm employment in this section are from the U.S. Department of Agriculture's Statistical Reporting Service series on farm labor. These data differ from those on agricultural employment in the Review of Current Developments and appendix tables of this report, which come from the Department of Labor's *Monthly Report on the Labor Force* and are based on different survey coverage and employment concepts. For historical data and an explanation of the Department of Agriculture series on farm output, man-hours of farmwork, and output per man-hour cited in this chapter, see annual revisions of *Changes in Farm Production and Efficiency* (Washington: U.S. Department of Agriculture, Economic Research Service), Statistical Bulletin No. 233.

weeds and pests, as well as by the development of new varieties of seeds and plants.

Government programs to stabilize agricultural prices and income by limiting or diverting excess acreage and production have helped many farmers improve their earnings from agriculture, but they also reduced farm jobs in many cases. The cutback of cotton production under the Food and Agriculture Act of 1965, for example, together with continuing mechanization, will substantially reduce the need for hand labor in some areas. Several thousand tractor drivers and mechanics may also be displaced unless other crops are grown on the land removed from cotton production. Other provisions of the act which will lead to shifts and reductions in manpower requirements relate to the lease and transfer of cotton, rice, and tobacco allotments, the transfer of acreage allotments on public lands, disposition of allotments when parts of a farm are sold, and the cropland adjustment program. This last program provides for the diversion of land currently producing surplus crops to conservation uses.

A continuing decline in farm manpower requirements is expected. Although total farm output will increase, output per unit of labor will grow even faster. According to projections by the Department of Agriculture, man-hours of farm labor in 1980 will be 35 percent below the 1964 level. (See chart 19.)

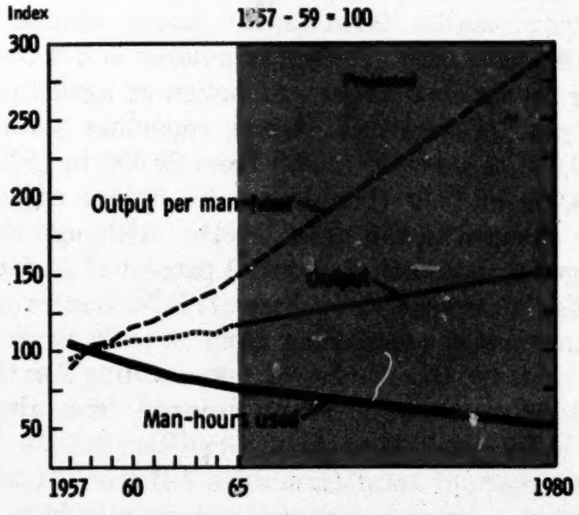
Since weekly hours worked per farmworker are projected to remain at current levels,[2] declining total man-hours worked will result in equivalent cutbacks in the actual number of farmworkers. Thus, the annual average number of farmworkers would drop from 5.6 million in 1965 to about 4.0 million in 1980, with the average number of farm operators and unpaid family workers falling from 4.1 to 2.9 million and hired worker employment from 1.5 to 1.1 million. While sizable, these declines would represent a slowing in the rate of decrease compared with the last decade.

SHORT-TERM NATURE OF FARM JOBS

Not only is agricultural employment declining, but also farm jobs for hired workers are becoming of increasingly short duration. This greater seasonality of farmwork is related to the mechanization of many hand operations, changes in marketing practices, and increasing crop specialization. Specialized commercial farming has gained as farmers have stopped growing products for their own subsistence, as the need to grow feed for farm animals has dropped off, and as new agricultural techniques and market developments have made it economically advantageous for individual farmers to concentrate their acreage in just a few crops.

With farm jobs shrinking in both number and duration, unemployment creates severe problems for hired farmworkers. About 700,000 of the 3.4 million persons who did some hired farmwork in 1964 experienced some unemployment during the year; approximately 160,000 were unemployed at least half of the year. These figures represent a high rate of unemployment, in view of the fact that the hired farmwork force includes many students and housewives who are in the labor force for only a short time during the year. Involuntary part-time employment is also prevalent. Today, only about 300,000 hired workers are employed year round on farms.

Chart 19 **Farm manpower needs will continue to decline as productivity gains exceed rise in output.**



Source: U.S. Department of Labor, based on data from U.S. Department of Agriculture.

[2] The labor force estimates of the Bureau of Labor Statistics indicate that annual average hours worked per farmworker decreased from 50.6 hours per week in 1947 to 45.2 hours in 1958. Since then they have varied between 44.8 and 45.7 hours per week.

NUMBER AND SIZE OF FARMS

The shrinking number and growing size of farms have had an important influence on manpower requirements. Between 1947 and 1965, the number of farms decreased from 5.3 million to about 3.4 million, with the decrease concentrated among smaller farm units. Large commercial farms have been growing in number and accounting for an ever-larger proportion of agricultural output. Commercial farms reporting sales of $40,000 or more increased from 29,000 in 1939 to 106,000 in 1959 (based on sales figures adjusted for changes in the price level). Although these large farms constituted only 3 percent of all farms in the latter year, their share of all farm sales more than doubled (increasing from 15 to 32 percent). In contrast, the number of farms selling less than $10,000 worth of products dropped from almost 5.5 million in 1939 to about 3.3 million in 1959, and their share of total farm sales fell from 61 to 29 percent. Average acreage per farm rose from 178 in 1940 to 342 in 1965.

As farms increase in size, and as more farm operations are mechanized, the cost of buying or operating an economically viable farm becomes prohibitive for low-income people. The value of assets used in agricultural production on the average farm rose from about $6,000 in 1940 to $60,000 in 1965.

A related change is the sharp decrease in farm tenancy, particularly in the case of sharecroppers in the Southeastern States. Mechanization of work on such crops as cotton and peanuts and the resulting consolidation of farms into larger, more economical units led to the decline of this form of farm management. As the proportion of farms operated by tenants dropped from one-third in 1945 to one-fifth in 1959, the proportion sharecroppers represented of all farm operators fell from 3 to 3 percent.[a] The number of sharecroppers remaining in Southern agriculture is not known, but is certainly much below the 121,000 counted in the 1959 Census of Agriculture.

The trend toward fewer and larger farms has also been accompanied by a growing concentration of the hired work force on larger farms. Half of the Nation's farmers do not hire any workers at all, and 89 percent of all expenditures for hired labor in 1964 were on the 29 percent of farms that sold products valued at $10,000 or more.

SHIFTS IN CROP LOCATION AND PRODUCTION

The centers of cotton and vegetable production have been moving westward in recent years, particularly to the new lands opened by irrigation in the Southwest. Between 1939 and 1965, the production of cotton in both Carolinas, Georgia, and Alabama decreased from 26 to 14 percent of the total national output, while Texas, New Mexico, Arizona, and California increased their share from 30 to 50 percent. During the same period, the Pacific States increased their production of vegetables for processing from 22 to 44 percent of the national total. As manpower needs declined in the old production areas, rising short-term labor requirements in California and parts of the Southwest led to expanded recruitment of domestic migratory workers and foreign nationals.

Changes in demand for farm products are also reflected in agricultural manpower needs. Increased consumption of fruits and salad vegetables has stimulated higher production in these crops, which have relatively high seasonal labor requirements for harvesting. Expanding production has sustained the demand for seasonal hired workers, including migratory workers, and contributed to a concentration of hired farmworkers in the principal fruit and vegetable States. California, Texas, and Florida accounted for one-third of the total wages paid to farm labor in 1964. Ten States accounted for half of all wages paid to hired farmworkers.

Although the decline in hired worker employment has been slowed by the growth of large farms and by rising fruit and vegetable production, further reduction is expected. New developments in the mechanization of fruit and vegetable harvests are cutting manpower requirements. Other commodities which still employ a substantial number of hired workers include cotton, tobacco, dairy products, livestock, and sugarcane. According to estimates of the Bureau of Labor Statistics, hired workers accounted for less than 30 percent of all man-hours worked in agriculture in 1965.

[a] Sharecroppers are tenants whose landlords provide crop supervision and furnish the means of production. Sharecroppers pay the landlord a share of the crop (or sometimes cash rent, a share of livestock, or of livestock products).

Farm Incomes and Wage Rates

Low incomes and low wage rates in agriculture and the drop in farm labor needs have combined to produce an exodus of agricultural manpower to nonfarm work in rural and urban areas. (See chart 20.) Although the per capita disposable personal income of farm residents has been rising, it was only 63 percent of the nonfarm average in 1965.

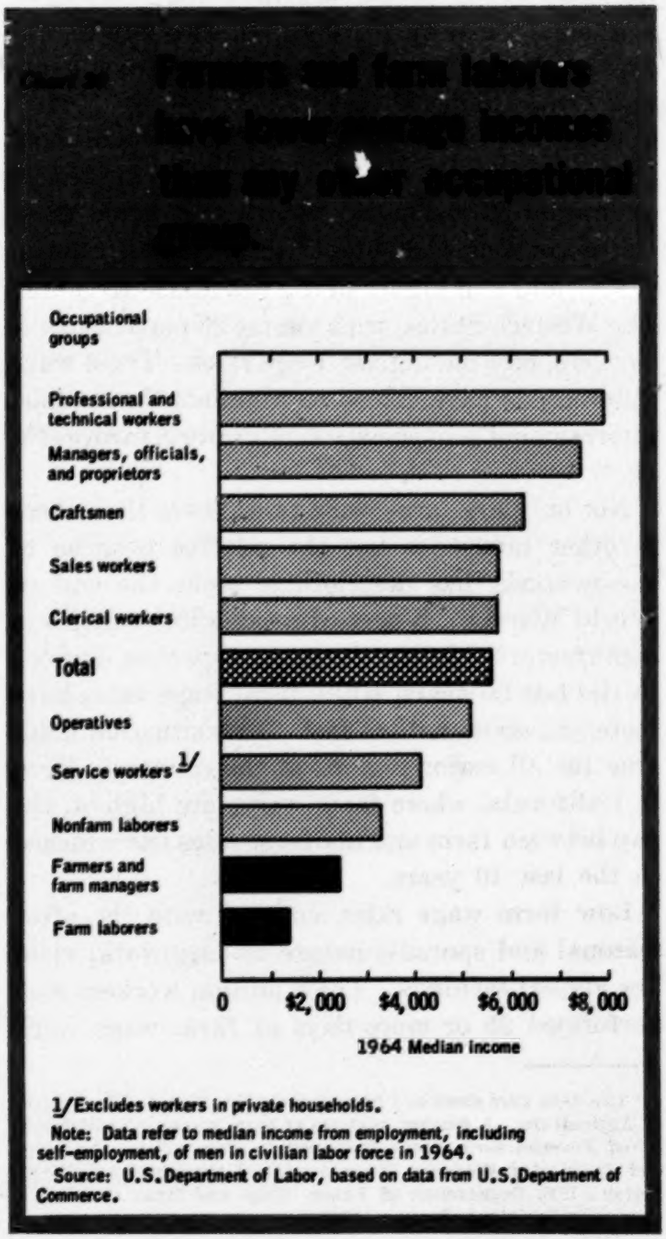
INCOME OF FARM OPERATORS

Realized net income from farming averaged $4,200 per farm in 1965, as compared with about $2,400 in 1949. This represented about a 40-percent gain in real income, after allowing for the rise in the cost of living. Nevertheless, a high proportion of farm operators still have earnings at the poverty level, even when their income from off-farm sources is added to the total. In 1964, about 45 percent of the families headed by a person engaged primarily in farming had money incomes of less than $3,000.

Because of the difficult economic adjustments faced by farm operators and the problems involved in keeping farms as viable economic enterprises, a considerable body of protective and supportive legislation has been enacted for this sector of the economy. The cornerstone of this legislation is programs to stabilize the supply and demand of farm products, to rationalize the marketing structure, and to support prices and farm income. Currently, this basic effort is embodied in the Food and Agriculture Act of 1965. The importance of such assistance is reflected in the fact that direct Government payments to farmers accounted for over $2.5 billion of the $44.4 billion national realized gross farm income in 1965.

Other government programs which have helped indirectly to bolster farm incomes include extensive research to improve farm production and marketing practices, crop insurance and emergency loans, conservation measures to help farmers maintain or improve their land use and potentials, farm operating and ownership loans, projects to provide low-cost electricity to the countryside, assistance to farmers' cooperatives, and marketing and other information services.

These programs help to make farming an economically feasible operation for large numbers of families at a time when the operation of farms has become a complicated and large-scale enterprise. Although they have not prevented the consolidation of small farms into larger units, they have tended to slow the out-movement of farm people, encouraged the development of new farm activities, and stimulated the creation of off-farm work opportunities for farm residents.



1/Excludes workers in private households.

Note: Data refer to median income from employment, including self-employment, of men in civilian labor force in 1964.

Source: U.S. Department of Labor, based on data from U.S. Department of Commerce.

EARNINGS OF HIRED FARMWORKERS

The wage rates of hired farmworkers are lower than those of any other major occupational group. In addition, farmworkers do not usually have fringe benefits such as health insurance, paid life insurance, paid vacations, or premium pay for overtime common in nonfarm industries. They are generally excluded from unemployment insurance and workmen's compensation programs, even though farm jobs tend to be seasonal and intermittent and work around farm machines is often hazardous.

The average hourly wage rate for farmworkers who did not receive room and board was only $1.14 in 1965, compared with average hourly earnings of $2.61 (plus fringe benefits) for production workers in manufacturing. In two States, the average farm rate was under 70 cents per hour; in 12 States, under $1.00.

Wage rates are lowest in the South, where about half the farmworkers live and work or, in the case of migratory laborers, have their home base. Rates are somewhat higher in the North Central States, and still higher in the Northeastern States. The Western States, with almost 20 percent of the workers, pay the highest wage rates. These wage differentials have helped to stimulate the seasonal interregional movement of migratory farmworkers.[4]

Not only are farm wage rates lower than those in other industries but the relative position of farmworkers has deteriorated since the end of World War II. Wages of production workers in manufacturing industries have more than doubled in the last 20 years, while farm wage rates have increased about half as fast. This situation holds true for all major regions of the country. Even in California, where farm wages are highest, the gap between farm and nonfarm rates has widened in the last 10 years.

Low farm wage rates, coupled with the often seasonal and sporadic nature of farmwork, yield low annual earnings. The 2 million workers who performed 25 or more days of farm wage work during 1964 had average earnings of only $933 from this employment. Even the small minority (300,000) who worked year-round at farm wage jobs earned only $2,560.

Even when the earnings of secondary wage earners are taken into account, a high proportion of farmworker families remain at the poverty level. About 56 percent of all families headed by a hired farmworker had total money incomes of less than $3,000 in 1962. The proportion of households with incomes of less than $3,000 was particularly high among nonwhites (83 percent) and among those headed by migratory workers (71 percent).

Why do farm wages lag behind nonfarm wages? Information on this question is important for developing ways to raise substandard wage rates and for attacking poverty among farm people. The underlying factors are complex, and their relative importance probably varies substantially among regions and by type of crop.

Low wage rates are found where the supply of farm labor exceeds requirements, and where alternative nonfarm job opportunities are scarce. The relatively small size and low returns of many farm enterprises also have retarded the rise of farm wages.

In the Pacific Coast States, for example, where profitable large-scale farming is widespread, farm wage rates are the highest in the country. These rates are influenced also by the high level of industrial wage rates in this region and the existence of extensive nonfarm employment opportunities. Farm wage rates are also relatively high in the industrial Northeast—owing, in part, to competition from nonfarm employers. In sharp contrast is the situation in the rural South, where the farm labor supply is abundant and nonfarm employment opportunities are more limited.

The composition of the hired farm work force has also tended to depress wage levels. Contributory factors include the heavy reliance on casual workers and unpaid members of farm operator families, the farm laborers' relatively low education and skill attainment, the heavy representation of minority groups whose job opportunities are limited by discrimination, the availability of foreign workers and of migratory workers from the Southern States and Puerto Rico, and the fact that most farmworkers are not unionized. The

[4] The data here cited are from surveys by the U.S. Department of Agriculture. A further analysis of farm wages is available in *Hired Farmworkers—Data Pertinent to Determining the Scope and Level of a Minimum Wage for Hired Farmworkers* (Washington: U.S. Department of Labor, Wage and Hour and Public Contracts Divisions, January 1964).

exclusion of farmworkers from most minimum wage laws also helps to account for the differential between farm and nonfarm wage rates.

On the other hand, factors which have tended to buoy wage levels include the heavy out-migration from farm areas and consequent reduction in the labor supply, the general upward movement of wage rates in nonfarm industries competing for the agricultural labor supply, and the rise in rural and urban living costs.

Farm Population Trends

Faced by a steadily declining demand for farmworkers, millions of farm people have turned to the nonagricultural economy for their livelihood. Rising nonfarm job opportunities offering the prospect of much higher earnings spurred their migration. Many young farm people also moved to nonfarm areas to take advantage of the better educational opportunities there.

Substantial numbers of workers with farm backgrounds manned defense and other industries during World War II. Most stayed on after the war's end, and many millions more have migrated to nonfarm areas since that time.

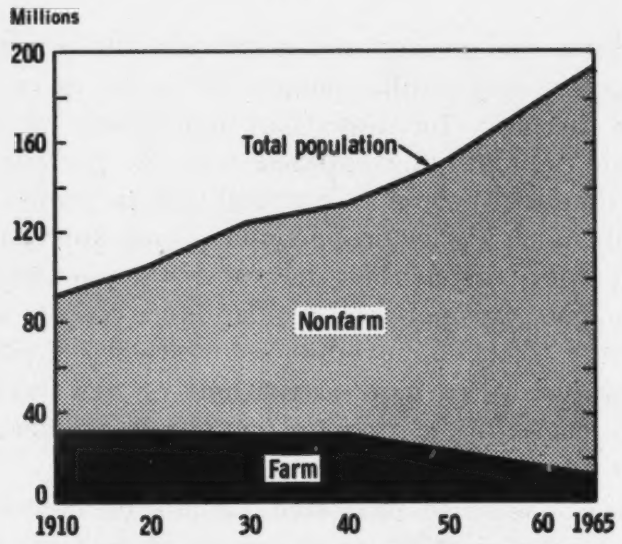
MOVEMENT FROM FARMS

The number of farm people is estimated to have reached a peak of 32,530,000 in 1916, just before the entry of the United States into World War I. After the war, the farm population declined slowly, but rose again during the economic depression of the 1930's.

The entry of the United States into World War II brought a sharp and still uninterrupted drop in the farm population. By 1965, little more than 12 million people remained on farms—only one-sixteenth of the total population. (See chart 21.)

The annual rate of net out-migration [*] has risen from 2.0 percent in the 1920–30 decade to 5.3 percent in the 1950–60 decade and 5.7 percent during the period 1960–65. During the 1950–60 decade the annual out-migration exceeded 1 million. But during 1960–65, the number of people leaving the farms averaged less than 800,000 per year, reflecting the drop in the farm population from which the migrants came.

Chart 21 **Farm population accounted for less than 7 percent of total in 1965—35 percent in 1910.**



Source: U.S. Department of Labor, based on data from U.S. Department of Agriculture and U.S. Department of Commerce.

A point that is often overlooked is that out-movement from the farm population does not necessarily represent the physical movement of people from their homes. Farm population decline reflects two factors: (a) The heavy movement of people from farm to nonfarm areas, and (b) the loss that occurs when agricultural operations on a place are ended and the people residing there are reclassified from the farm to nonfarm category without actually making a physical move to a different dwelling. The amount of farm population decrease that has resulted from such reclassifications is not precisely known. It is believed that

[*] The annual rate of net out-migration is the annual average amount of net migration expressed as a percentage of the annual average farm population in the specified period.

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this type of in-place farm-to-nonfarm change has been substantial, but that it is much less frequent than actual out-migration. For convenience, the terms "movement" and "migration" are here used interchangeably to signify both types of change.

Because of their lack of training for skilled or technical occupations, farm people who move into the nonfarm job market are likely to be employed in low-skilled or semiskilled blue-collar occupations in which manpower requirements have the lowest growth rates. But despite their limited job opportunities and the problems involved in adjusting to an urban setting, only about 1 out of 10 persons who have left the farm population have been returning to the farm in recent years.

CHANGING CHARACTERISTICS OF THE FARM POPULATION

Since the greatest out-migration has occurred among young adults, persons 20 to 44 years old now account for less than one-fourth of the farm population, compared with 31 percent of all nonfarm people. Conversely, farm people include much higher proportions of both youngsters and older persons than the rest of the population. The rising proportion of older farm people, who are not likely to move because of their difficulties in adjusting to new occupations or new homes, may constitute a growing manpower problem in many farm areas.

There were an estimated 1.5 million nonwhite farm people in 1965, or 12 percent of the total, but over 90 percent of the nonwhite farm population resides in the South.

In recent years, the Negro farm population has been declining much more rapidly than the white. Between 1960 and 1965, nonwhites decreased by 41 percent, while the white farm population decreased by 17 percent. One-third of the overall drop in farm population during this period can be attributed to the exodus of Negro people from farms.

PROJECTED FARM POPULATION

Although the future size of the farm population cannot be estimated precisely, it is evident that the 4-percent average annual rate of decline during the past 15 years will not continue indefinitely. Farm population losses during the next 15 years will probably not be as large, either in rate or in absolute numbers, as those since 1950.

But continuing out-migration from farm areas will be necessary unless there is a sharp drop in the farm birth rate. Even if farm employment should stabilize, farm families would still be producing many more children than could be employed in agriculture. The number of children born per farm family is sufficient to increase the farm population by at least 50 percent per generation.

The prospective slowdown in farm population decline and out-migration suggests that by 1980 farm people may number about 9 or 10 million, or about 4 percent of the total population. It is likely, however, that an additional 10 million persons not living on farms will be in families involved to some degree in farm operation or hired farmwork.

The Agricultural Work Force

Agriculture is the only major industry in which the majority of workers are self-employed people and unpaid members of their families. Workers in these categories made up two-thirds of the people employed on farms in 1965—4.1 million of the average of 5.6 million. Obviously, these farm operators and their families have employment problems and needs substantially different from those of hired farmworkers.

Employment of hired workers averaged only 1.5 million in 1965. However, because most farm jobs are short-term, the number of persons engaged in farm wage work at some time during the year was much higher, probably approximating the 3.4 million total estimated in 1964.

FARM OPERATORS AND UNPAID FAMILY WORKERS

Employment of farm operators and unpaid family workers has been declining sharply (from 7.9 million in 1945 to 4.1 million in 1965), largely as a result of the consolidation of many small farms. The sharpest drop occurred in the South Atlantic and South Central regions, where the number of operators and family workers fell by 57 percent between 1945 and 1965. Part of this large decrease is attributable to the disappearance of farms operated by sharecroppers.

Diminishing opportunities to operate small farms have curtailed the chances of farm youngsters to move up the agricultural career ladder. It is estimated that only 10 percent of all farm youth can expect to become operators of adequate-size commercial farms. Few young people can gather the substantial capital currently needed to buy and operate a farm. This is one of the major reasons why hundreds of thousands of young farm people have moved to the city, leaving behind them the older and less mobile groups.

Many displaced farm operators, particularly sharecroppers and tenant farmers in the Southeast, have chosen to remain in an agricultural occupation by moving into the ranks of hired farmworkers. Some have become migratory workers.

An increasing proportion of farmers have turned to off-farm work as a means of supplementing their farm earnings. The combined income may make possible a reasonably comfortable life on family-operated farms. About 4 of every 10 farm operators have off-farm jobs; half of them work off their farms for 200 days or more each year. Often, also, members of the farmer's family engage in off-farm work.

As might be expected, the relative dependence of the farm family upon income from off-farm work is greatest on the smaller farms. On farms with sales of less than $2,500 in 1964, an average of about 75 percent of total income came from off-farm sources. In contrast, on farms with sales of $10,000 or more, less than 20 percent of total income came from off-farm sources.

Income from off-farm sources and growth of efficient large-scale commercial operations have helped many of the people still living on farms to achieve substantial progress in their standard of living. The average level of education of farm operators has also advanced, though it is still far below that of the urban population. The proportion of farmers and farm managers with at least a high school education increased from 10 percent in 1940 to 28 percent in 1960.

COMPOSITION OF THE HIRED FARM WORK FORCE

The short-term nature of many farm jobs, their relatively low skill level and low wage level, and the fact that many farmworkers must take jobs away from home and live in housing furnished by their employers suggest some of the problems faced by hired farmworkers.

About 3.4 million people (excluding youngsters under 14) did some work on farms for cash wages during 1964.[6] Despite the sharp drop in farm labor requirements, the total number of hired farmworkers has shown little change in recent years. But increasing use has been made of seasonal workers and decreasing use of year-round workers.

Fully 40 percent, or 1.4 million, of the hired farmhands employed during 1964 were "casual workers" who put in less than 25 days of farm wage work during the year. This group averaged only 9 days of farmwork and earnings of $57. Altogether, they accounted for only 5 percent of all the man-days of farm wage work in 1964, but their number is increasing in the face of the general decline in farm employment.

Casual workers are primarily drawn from groups that are out of the labor force most of the year. About one-fifth are housewives. Another large group are students or other youths in need of temporary employment during school vacations; over one-fourth are 14 to 17 years old. Many come from nonfarm families, have incomes above the poverty level, and thus are not dependent on agriculture for a livelihood.

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[6] Gladys K. Bowles, *The Hired Working Force of 1964: A Statistical Report* (Washington: U.S. Department of Agriculture, Economic Research Service, August 1965), Agricultural Economic Report No. 82. Not included in this 3.4 million are persons who did some farm wage work in 1964, who died, entered the Armed Forces, or were otherwise removed from the survey population by the time of the Current Population Survey in December. The total number of persons who are excluded from the Economic Research Service survey probably does not exceed 500,000. Part of the excluded group are foreign nationals who did farm wage work in this country but who had returned to their homes before the survey. In 1964, approximately 200,000 foreign agricultural workers were contracted for work in the United States.

The second largest component of the hired farm work force consists of "seasonal" workers—those who perform 25 to 149 days of farm wage work during the year. The total number of seasonal workers—estimated at 1.3 million in 1964—has shown little change since World War II. The group as a whole averaged 64 days of farm wage work in 1964 and earnings of about $400. While seasonal workers generally have a stronger attachment to the farm labor force than casual workers, more than half are out of the labor force most of the year, and this proportion has probably been increasing.

Persons who depend primarily on farm wage work for a living are a relatively small minority of the farm work force. (See chart 22.) Only about 650,000 workers—one-fifth of the hired farm work force—were employed for 150 or more days in this type of work during 1964. And only half this number worked 250 or more days and can thus be considered year-round farmworkers.

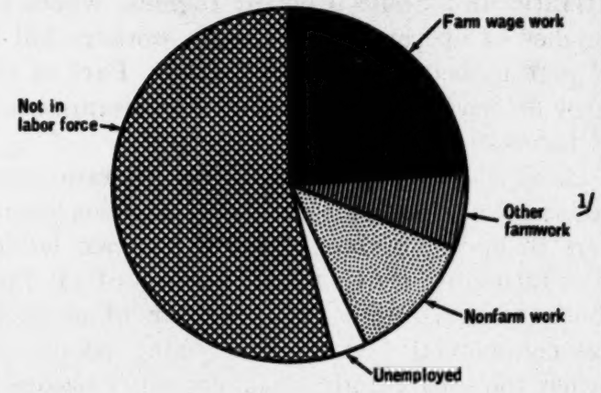
The importance to agriculture of the approximately 650,000 regular workers is much more significant than their numbers suggest. These workers, constituting the relatively skilled and stable backbone of agricultural manpower, accounted for fully two-thirds of the man-days of hired farmwork in 1964. Yet during the last two decades, the number of regular farmworkers has declined substantially. Today, probably less than 350,000 farms have even one regular farmhand on the payroll.

What kinds of people are recruited for farm wage jobs? Among regular and seasonal workers, one-third were nonwhites in 1964. About three-fourths were men, and some two-fifths were heads of households.

Educational attainment is relatively low, although rising. Only 8 percent of the workers aged 45 or over in 1964 had completed high school, and 83 percent never went beyond the eighth grade. In contrast, of those aged 18 to 24, 37 percent had completed high school and a large majority had progressed beyond elementary school.

An increasing proportion of farm wage workers do not live on farms. Two-thirds of the hired farm work force in 1949 were farm residents, but the proportion dropped to one-third by 1964. Those not farm residents are recruited by special mechanisms developed over the years to bring casual workers and potential farm employers together. Migratory labor and labor contractors

Chart 22 — Three out of four hired farmworkers have a chief activity other than farm wage work.



1/ Includes operating a farm and unpaid family labor.

Source: U.S. Department of Labor, based on data from U.S. Department of Agriculture.

play important roles. In many areas, "day-haul" programs arrange for employment of large numbers of casual workers on a day-by-day basis.[7]

MIGRATORY FARMWORKERS

Because of the short duration of most farm jobs, more than one-tenth of all farm wage workers are migratory workers, who travel from job to job outside of their home areas in order to piece together a livelihood. Many are accompanied by members of their families, who may also work and add to the family income.

Although many workers leave the migratory stream each year, the total number of migratory workers has remained for some time at about 400,000. The migratory work force has been replenished by displaced tenant farmers, hired farmworkers displaced by mechanization, an inflow of

[7] A day-haul operation is one in which seasonal farmworkers and employer representatives assemble each day at a designated pickup point to arrange for employment and transportation to farms on a day-by-day basis, under the supervision of State Employment Service agencies. The workers are returned to the pickup point at the end of the workday.

Mexican immigrants and Puerto Ricans, and some unskilled jobless workers from the city.

About three-fourths of the migratory workers during 1964 were men. Six out of ten were less than 35 years old. One-fourth were nonwhite, and many others were members of ethnic minority groups, such as Mexican-Americans and Indians.

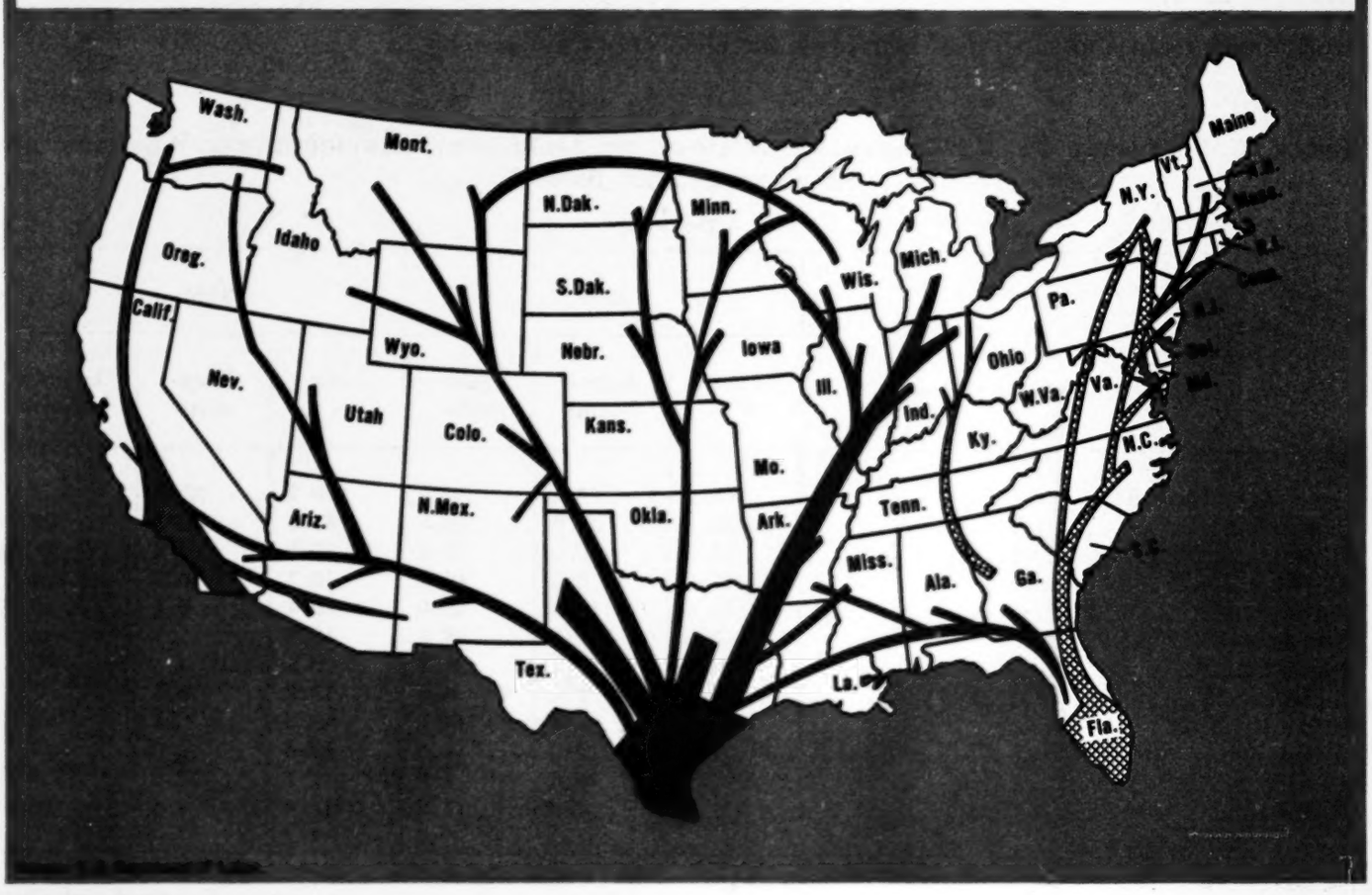
There are three principal migratory streams—the eastern seaboard, the midcontinent, and the west coast. (See chart 23.) There are also many subcurrents, including important intrastate movements. In recent years, migrants have tended to strike out in new patterns in response to production shifts and in search of better jobs.

The eastern seaboard stream consists of 30,000 to 40,000 workers from Florida and other Southeastern States. Migrants move into Florida during the winter months to harvest vegetables, sugarcane, and citrus fruit. Beginning early in May, crews move northward through the South Atlantic States, stopping to work in North Carolina, Virginia, or Maryland on their way to New York and New Jersey; a few go as far as New England. Most of these groups make the return trip south in the fall.

The midcontinent stream involves nearly 100,000 workers, primarily of Mexican descent. The home base of most of these migrants is southern Texas. As winter vegetable work is completed in their home areas, some migrants move into the Rocky Mountain and Plains States for sugarbeet cultivation. After July, most of these migrants find employment in the midwestern fruit and vegetable harvest, but some move north to harvest wheat. Other Texas migrants go into the fruit and vegetable harvest of the Pacific Northwest. Still another movement is that of cotton choppers and cotton-harvest workers across Texas and into New Mexico, Arizona, and California. Cotton harvesting in the High Plains of Texas reaches a peak

Chart 23

Major routes followed by migratory farmworkers.



in October and November, and many migrants arrange to be back in the State for this work, though increased mechanization of cotton harvesting has reduced this migratory movement.

The third major movement, along the west coast, involves employment in harvesting and other work on fruits and vegetables from southern California to Oregon, Washington, and Idaho. (See table 25.)

The social and economic problems associated with migrancy have long pointed to the need for improving the mechanisms of the agricultural job market. Migratory workers often live in substandard housing, have inadequate annual earnings, and may be exploited by unscrupulous crew leaders. Because they are transients, they often receive inadequate educational and health services, and are usually ineligible for public assistance or other community services in areas where they do not stay long enough to meet residence requirements.

A high proportion of the migrants travel as members of a crew directed by a crew leader. Crew leaders perform essential functions—arranging for jobs, screening and recruiting the individual workers, and transporting them to and from the job. They usually arrange for housing in the work areas, train and supervise their work force, and handle the payment of wages. They often give workers financial and other assistance and generally undertake to maintain order and good social relations in the crew. The crew system thus forms a social and economic framework that makes the large-scale movement of seasonal migrants a feasible means of meeting short-term farm labor needs. However, questions raised about the practices of some leaders with respect to their crews' earnings and other matters indicate a need for improvement of this key institution of the agricultural job market.

An important forward step in rationalizing the recruitment and distribution of migratory workers was the establishment of the Annual Worker Plan in 1954 by the Federal-State employment service system. Using information both on the number and characteristics of migratory workers and crews and on the labor needs of farm operators, public employment offices help to assign crews to employers in an orderly way. Efforts are made to arrange successive job referrals for the migrants, to minimize periods of joblessness. As the season progresses, changes in schedules are arranged where needed because of unforeseen changes in the timing of crop activities, the weather, the size of crews, and so on.

TABLE 25. ESTIMATED PEAK EMPLOYMENT OF DOMESTIC MIGRATORY[1] AGRICULTURAL WORKERS, BY SELECTED STATES, 1964–65

[Thousands]

State[2]	1964			1965		
	Total	Intrastate	Interstate	Total	Intrastate	Interstate
Total for U.S.[3]	264.2	77.8	186.4	270.7	87.5	183.2
California	52.1	33.6	18.5	65.5	43.0	22.5
Florida	15.2	6.0	9.2	17.8	6.4	11.4
Kansas	17.2	6.5	10.7	10.7	4.8	5.9
Michigan	55.6	10.6	45.0	49.7	9.1	40.6
New Jersey	13.6	.1	13.5	12.6	.1	12.5
New York	22.6	1.1	21.5	20.4	1.1	19.3
North Carolina	13.6	7.0	6.5	13.7	6.4	7.3
Ohio	12.5	.4	12.1	16.3	.5	15.8
Oregon	17.4	2.9	14.5	15.4	2.0	13.4
Texas	25.9	24.3	1.6	27.7	26.0	1.7
Washington	15.8	4.6	11.2	14.4	4.4	10.0

[1] Includes State residents who temporarily worked and resided in another county in the State or in another State.

[2] Only States with total employment of 10,000 or more in either 1964 or 1965 are shown separately.

[3] Refers to that time of year when employment of domestic migratory agricultural workers was at its peak for the U.S. as a whole.

During 1964, State Employment Service agencies contacted some 10,000 interstate migrant farmworker groups, including about 180,000 people from 34 States. Texas and Florida were the home States of nearly three-fourths of the participants in the plan that year.

Improvement of the crew system is the aim of the Farm Labor Contractor Registration Act, which became effective January 1, 1965. This act requires crew leaders to register at government offices, meet certain standards of reliability, and secure licenses—which are to be revoked if crew leaders engage in unscrupulous practices. Crew leaders are required to furnish workers with accurate information about the nature of prospective jobs, wage rates, and working conditions. Vehicles used for the interstate transportation of farmworkers in the crew must conform to standards of the Interstate Commerce Commission, and insurance protection must be obtained for the workers being transported.

The Department of Labor is making systematic efforts to acquaint crew leaders with the provisions of this act and help them meet licensing requirements. During calendar year 1965, 1,389 registration certificates and employee identification cards were issued to them.

Some progress has also been made in improving the living and working conditions of migratory farmworkers through Federal and State action. Thirty-two States have taken at least initial steps to insure sanitation and safety in agricultural labor camps, but such laws are difficult to enforce and some States do not even insist on running water or electricity in the camps. The Department of Agriculture makes loans to employers who need help in building decent housing for their farmworkers, and provides grants to public or nonprofit organizations that will provide farmworker housing as a community service.

The safety of migratory farmworkers traveling across State lines is the subject of regulations of the Interstate Commerce Commission. And under the Migrant Health Act of 1962, the U.S. Public Health Service makes grants to public and other nonprofit agencies to pay part of the cost of health services for the migrants and their families; such grants have been awarded in over half of the States. More recently, the Economic Opportunity Act of 1964 has provided resources for programs to improve housing, sanitation, education, and child care for migratory and other seasonally employed farmworkers and their families.[8] Much remains to be done, however, to improve the conditions of migratory agricultural labor.

Reduction in Employment of Foreign Workers

Major progress was made in increasing job opportunities for American farmworkers during 1965, as sharp restrictions were imposed on the use of farmworkers from other countries.[9]

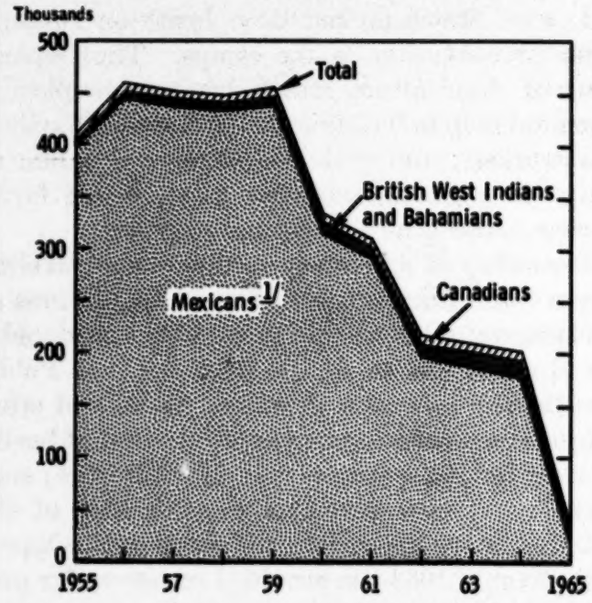
Recruitment of farm labor from outside the United States—primarily from Mexico, Canada, and the West Indies—has been resorted to for many years to meet temporary labor shortages. The number of foreign nationals admitted to the United States for temporary farm jobs reached a peak of more than 400,000 per year during the late 1950's. (See chart 24.) Then the use of foreign labor declined, primarily as a result of mechanization of the cotton harvest and new Government restrictions. By 1964, the number of foreign workers admitted was down to 200,000 and they were employed on only 1 percent of all farms in the country. However, they were still used in 29 States, with the heaviest concentrations in California, Texas, and Florida. (See table 26.)

Factors underlying the employment of foreign workers have included the difficulty of recruiting farmhands for short-term jobs, the relatively low level of farm wages, the availability of alternative work at higher pay in the growing nonfarm economy, and the increasing demand for farm labor in sparsely populated areas of the Southwest which have recently been opened to large-scale farming by irrigation. Lack of adequate housing for farmworker families also contributes to recruitment difficulties in areas where workers have to live on the

[8] These programs are described in greater detail on pp. 140–143 below.

[9] The Secretary of Labor has issued a full report on the action taken to curtail use of foreign workers on U.S. farms in 1965. See *Year of Transition—Seasonal Farm Labor, 1965* (Washington: U.S. Department of Labor, 1965).

Chart 24 **Foreign workers on temporary farm jobs show sharp decline.**



1/ Data for 1956-64 includes an average of 450 persons of other than Mexican nationality.

Source: U.S. Department of Labor.

farms. On the other hand, the availability of foreign labor has reduced farm operators' incentives to improve working and living conditions and raise wage levels so as to attract more American workers.

TERMINATION OF PUBLIC LAW 78

In recent years, employment of foreign workers on this country's farms had come under increasing criticism. It was stated that their employment restricted the job opportunities of domestic farmhands and eliminated normal competitive pressures to improve wages and working conditions in agriculture. It was pointed out also that large numbers of jobless workers might be available for farmwork if wages were increased and if farm employers had more incentive to intensify recruitment efforts.

For these reasons, Public Law 78 (the 82d Congress) was permitted to expire at the end of 1964. For 13 years, this law had authorized the admission to the country of Mexican workers for temporary farm jobs, on contracts and under the supervision of the Government.

TABLE 26. ANNUAL PEAK EMPLOYMENT OF FOREIGN AGRICULTURAL WORKERS,[1] BY SELECTED STATES, 1959 [2] AND 1964–65

[Thousands]

State [3]	1959	1964	1965	Nationality [4]
Total for U.S.[5]	308.2	92.8	23.7	.....
Arizona	16.3	7.2	.....	M
Arkansas	39.0	4.0	.....	M
California	83.6	63.9	17.2	M
Colorado	5.7	6.0	.....	M
Florida [6]	10.3	14.0	8.5	B
Maine	8.1	7.0	3.8	C
Michigan	11.0	12.8	.....	M
New Mexico	19.5	1.3	.....	M
Texas	136.8	15.6	.....	M

[1] Foreign nationals contracted for temporary farmwork in the U.S.
[2] Year of all-time peak employment of foreign workers.
[3] Only States with employment of 5,000 or more in 1959 are shown separately.
[4] Only the most important national group is shown: M-Mexican; B-British West Indian; C-Canadian.
[5] Refers to that time of year when agricultural employment of foreign nationals was at its peak for the U.S. as a whole.
[6] Data for Florida refer to the crop season rather than the calendar year.

Foreign farmworkers can still be admitted under the Immigration and Nationality Act, but only under stringent regulations issued by the Secretary of Labor in December 1964. These regulations seek to assure that foreigners will not be admitted when unemployed American workers are available for farm jobs, or under circumstances that would have an adverse effect on domestic wage levels. Thus, prospective employers of foreign workers are required to offer wage rates to U.S. workers that would produce hourly earnings at least equal to rates specified in the new regulations. These rates vary from $1.15 to $1.40 per hour, depending on the wage level prevailing in the given State.[10] Generally, they represent an increase over previous wage levels.

Employers seeking to hire foreign workers are also required to offer payment of transportation costs for qualified domestic farmhands, and to provide them with family housing where feasible and necessary.

As a result of the termination of Public Law 78 and the administrative actions of the Department

[10] Lower rates were in effect in seven States during the first 3 months of 1965.

of Labor, there was a dramatic curtailment in the use of foreign contract workers on U.S. farms. During 1965, less than 36,000 were admitted to the United States for temporary farm jobs—as compared with 200,000 the preceding year.

The workers admitted during 1965 included 20,300 from Mexico, 10,900 from the West Indies, and about 4,700 from Canada. In September, the seasonal peak of foreign worker employment, only 24,000 held jobs on U.S. farms—one-fourth of the corresponding 1964 peak. Man-months of foreign labor use fell from 634,000 to 110,000, a year-to-year drop of 83 percent. Mexican "braceros," who worked in 17 States in 1964, were employed in only 1 State (California) in 1965.

The activities in which foreign workers were chiefly engaged in 1965 were harvesting citrus fruit and sugarcane in Florida; tomatoes, strawberries, and asparagus in California; and apples, shade tobacco, and potatoes in several Northeastern States. Foreign contract workers were eliminated from cotton cultivation and picking, sugarbeet thinning and weeding, and melon harvesting—activities in which thousands of Mexicans had been employed in previous years. Texas, Arizona, Arkansas, Michigan, and Colorado managed to produce their crops without a single foreign contract worker in 1965, although substantial numbers had been used in the past.

An innovation in reviewing the need for foreign labor was the appointment of panels consisting of university faculty members and other impartial persons in two States—California and Michigan—where large numbers of braceros were formerly used. These panels, set up during the spring of 1965, assisted in making findings of fact and recommendations with regard to employer requests for supplementary foreign labor. They also recommended procedures for meeting labor needs, recruiting domestic workers, and obtaining adequate farm wages and working and living conditions.

The panels conducted hearings and conferences at which State officials, representatives of the Department of Labor concerned with farm labor problems, growers, processors, union officials, and other interested parties were afforded an opportunity to testify.

In California, the panel recommended approval of employer requests for reduced numbers of foreign workers for the asparagus, strawberry, and canning-tomato harvests. In its final report to the Secretary, the California panel found that replacement of braceros by domestic workers had not adversely affected gross farm income or prices, while it benefited the economy of the State and the Nation. During the summer and fall of 1965, there were about 20,000 more Americans employed on California farms than a year earlier. Their farm wages were higher and working conditions somewhat improved.

Some crop loss from labor shortages occurred in the 1965 strawberry and asparagus harvests (which paid lower wages than the average for all crops). However, the gross income of strawberry growers exceeded the 1959–64 average and dollar reductions in the income of asparagus growers were minor. The panel noted a sizable reduction in the State's acreage of processing tomatoes, but this was in response to supply and demand pressures, and the value of the 1965 crop was 47 percent higher than the 1959–64 average. California's total agricultural income in 1965 was estimated to be higher than in the preceding year, while the price paid by consumers for California agricultural products remained fairly steady, for the most part.

More broadly, the panel recommended improvement in the Department of Labor's data-gathering and placement operations, increased efforts to improve housing for farmworkers, extension of protective labor legislation to farmworkers, payment of more adequate wages, and development by employers of better training and supervisory practices.

In Michigan, braceros had comprised 80 percent of the 16,000 seasonal hired workers who harvested pickling cucumbers in 1964. The Michigan panel reported that the complete elimination of braceros from the harvest in 1965 created some labor shortages and reduced crop acreage and production. Nationwide, however, production of this crop was higher than in 1964, owing to higher acreage in other areas.

On the basis of experience in the 1965 cucumber harvest, the Michigan panel recommended an improved recruitment program, increased efforts to fit the cucumber harvest into the regular migratory flow pattern so as to give the migrants a longer working season, better supervision of seasonal workers, and redesigning of wage incentives. The panel recommended that no foreign labor be authorized for the 1966 harvest season in Michigan.

EXPANDED RECRUITMENT EFFORTS

To help develop an adequate work force to replace foreign workers, the Department of Labor introduced several new recruitment approaches.

With the cooperation of State Employment Service agencies, mobile teams composed of State and Federal Government officials contacted employers to determine their labor needs and to develop job orders. The teams then developed and coordinated area programs to locate potential supplies of workers, to provide them with information on available farm jobs, and to facilitate hiring and transportation arrangements.

Because of the importance of young workers in the seasonal farm labor force, three special programs for the recruitment of youth were conducted in 1965—the A-Team program, the College Summer Recruitment Program, and Project Growth. The A-Team program—Athletes for Temporary Employment as Agricultural Manpower—was an effort to tap the large number of high school students interested in earning money during their summer vacations. Students were recruited in teams, under the supervision of their high school athletic coaches, for work in labor shortage areas. Transportation and housing arrangements were made for the youths, and their work and living environments were carefully supervised.

A-Teams, recruited in 25 States, were employed in California, Michigan, and Arizona. Although only 3,000 youths were placed in this initial effort, the A-Team program showed that a large reservoir of youthful manpower is available to harvest crops for employers who offer decent wages and working conditions.

Under the College Summer Recruitment Program, begun in 1964, the Department of Labor arranges for summer farm jobs for college students with the purpose of helping them earn money needed to continue their education. The success of a pilot project in 1964 and the limitation on foreign workers in 1965 opened the way for an expanded program. From slightly more than 100 in 1964, placements of college students grew to about 5,000 in 1965. Further expansion is expected in 1966.

Project Growth was undertaken in 1965 as an experimental program. Its primary objective was to develop ways of helping jobless urban youth, aged 17 to 21, who were having trouble in adjusting to employment or training or in adapting to adult responsibilities. The method tested was to arrange a period of seasonal agricultural employment, coupled with systematic counseling and other remedial services before, during, and after the farm job. While on the job, the young men lived in farm labor camps, where they were supervised by qualified counselors and group leaders who sought to make the work and camp life a meaningful experience in improving each individual's capabilities for work adjustment. Upon completion of the project, efforts were made to refer the youth to jobs or training. Although Project Growth added only several hundred youths to the farm work force, many of whom had difficulty in adapting to farm living conditions and work routines, it proved a worthwhile experiment in the reclamation of human resources through productive and wholesome agricultural tasks and supplemental services.

The number of youth placed through these 3 programs—about 9,000—was relatively small when compared with the regular services to youth provided by the public employment service system. During 1965, the Employment Service made 1,165,000 agricultural placements of workers under 22 (including many multiple placements of the same individual). However, the special youth programs helped pioneer new recruitment approaches that will be of increasing value in future operations. And all told, between 15,000 and 25,000 high school and college students had work last summer which was previously performed by braceros.

Intensive efforts were also made to recruit more American Indians for farmwork. Representatives of the Employment Service and the Bureau of Indian Affairs assessed the potential labor supply on each reservation and mobile teams canvassed the reservations to recruit Indian workers interested in farm employment.

Recruitment of Puerto Rican workers was also expanded. Puerto Ricans have been coming to the mainland to do farmwork for many years, as individuals or under contract with employers supervised by the Puerto Rican Government. As a result of intensified efforts, some 17,400 were contracted for farmwork in 1965, compared with 14,700 in 1964.

Good progress was made in improving the utilization of local workers by means of new or expanded day-hauls and by the cooperation of growers in facilitating transfers of workers from com-

pleted activities to crops still needing labor. Expanded recruitment of interstate migratory workers was also undertaken, and training of workers under the MDTA to take over jobs formerly handled by foreigners was tested on a small scale.

EFFECTS OF REDUCED USE OF FOREIGN WORKERS

A rise in farm wage rates in areas formerly using foreign workers was one major result of the curtailment of their employment. This occurred as employers competed for domestic workers and as those requesting foreign labor conformed to the wage rates specified in the Secretary of Labor's regulations. Nationally, according to the Department of Agriculture, average wage rates for farmworkers who did not receive room or board from their employers rose from $1.08 to $1.14 between 1964 and 1965. This was the largest year-to-year increase since the Korean war.

Decreased use of foreign workers also expanded job opportunities for U.S. workers. As many as 100,000 took farm jobs in 1965 that were formerly held by foreign farmhands. In August, at the seasonal peak in farm employment, 86,000 more Americans were employed as seasonal farmworkers than a year earlier. The unemployment rate for agricultural laborers was 4.8 percent in August 1965, compared with 6.5 percent in the same month of 1964.

Man-months of employment of U.S. workers in crops and areas where foreign workers had been concentrated were 12 percent higher in 1965 than in 1964—an increase of nearly 250,000 man-months. The greatest gains were in citrus fruit, cucumbers, lettuce, melons, strawberries, sugarbeets, tobacco, and tomatoes.

Communities where U.S. workers replaced those from other countries benefited by increased expenditures in local stores. Formerly, a considerable part of the farm wages paid in such areas each year was sent out of the country. It is estimated that decreased use of foreign workers also helped to improve the Nation's international balance-of-payments situation by at least $50 million.

Most employers who had relied on foreign workers prior to the termination of Public Law 78 were able to adjust to the use of domestic manpower without undue difficulty. There was increased reliance on machines to harvest crops. And production methods were modified to make it possible to employ more women and youth.

Acreage of three or four crops in a few areas which formerly utilized large numbers of foreign workers was reduced during 1965, but there were indications that this reduction in some instances was attributable in part to market conditions rather than labor shortages. And the reduction was partly offset by higher acreage harvested in other areas. Altogether, the Nation had bumper harvests in 1965; even the claimed losses due to labor shortages amounted to only a tiny fraction of the value of the crops which utilized foreign labor in 1964.

The available evidence also suggests that increases in farm wages attributable to the termination of labor importation under Public Law 78 had only a marginal influence on the retail price of agricultural commodities. On the whole, the market prices of fruits and vegetables were lower in 1965 than in 1964, although the prices of most other commodities rose.

FUTURE PROSPECTS

The outlook is for continued reduction of foreign labor use, although labor shortage areas will remain in California, Florida, and a few other States. In California, increased mechanization of the tomato harvest and of several other labor-intensive activities will probably tend to limit major shortages to isolated emergency situations. More effective recruitment, higher wage rates for citrus work, and reduced sugarcane acreage indicate a need for fewer foreign workers in Florida.

The demand for foreign workers will be influenced by the wage rates and the quality and type of housing offered to domestic workers, and by transportation and related arrangements for them. The extent to which employment opportunities in nonagricultural industries continue to draw people from the farm will exert an important influence. The rate of advance of laborsaving technology on farms will be another important factor. Every effort will be made, however, to continue recent progress in limiting foreign worker use and in expanding opportunities for American workers on farms.

VOCATIONAL EDUCATION FOR FARM PEOPLE

Because of the reduction of job opportunities in farming, a majority of farm youth must prepare for unfamiliar jobs in nonfarm industries. Many adult farmworkers also require retraining for nonfarm employment. And even the workers who remain on the farm must learn new skills to keep abreast of agriculture's changing technology.

A major obstacle to effective vocational training of farm youth has been the inadequacy of training facilities in many rural areas. Despite the need to prepare many farm youngsters for nonfarm jobs, courses in agriculture have been predominant in the vocational curriculum of most rural schools. Only a minimum of training has been available in commercial, trades and industrial, and other nonfarm occupations.

With the resources provided by the Vocational Education Act of 1963, however, a major advance is possible toward meeting the vocational education needs of farm people. The occupations for which training may now be given with Federal assistance are more inclusive than those authorized in earlier programs, and geared more realistically to the needs of the job market. Agricultural courses, for example, may now include related occupations in production, processing, distribution, and service activities. The Office of Education has sponsored studies in some 30 States to determine new and emerging occupations related to agriculture for which such training may profitably be offered. Training may also be given for skilled and technical occupations required by expanding nonfarm industries.

Also authorized by the act are Federal funds for construction of area vocational-technical schools. This provision recognizes that small school units, operating on a limited tax base in many rural areas, cannot offer the varied curriculum or the quality of training needed. Large area schools will be in a position to offer to both rural and urban residents a broad and continuously updated spectrum of courses, using qualified instructors and modern equipment. During fiscal year 1965, 41 States utilized more than $55 million of their Federal allocations for the construction of 125 area schools. A survey has indicated the need for more than 1,000 additional vocational-technical area school facilities in the next 10 years.

Many youths in low-income farmworker families drop out of school permanently, or miss some schooling during busy agricultural seasons, while working to supplement family earnings. The provision of the 1963 act authorizing arrangements for part-time paid jobs for needy youngsters can thus be of real help to farm youth.[11]

The vocational training courses for adults served more than a half million rural people in fiscal year 1965—between one-fourth and one-fifth of all adults included in this program. Many adults, as well as farm youth, may thus be aided by the special vocational education programs tailored to the needs of persons with academic, socioeconomic, or other handicaps, provided for under the 1963 act.

An extensive program of research, experimental and demonstration projects, and increased teacher training are among the other important developments authorized by this act. People who live or work on farms will benefit from the new ideas and better information developed in the course of these activities.

TRAINING FOR THE UNEMPLOYED AND UNDEREMPLOYED

The training programs for unemployed and underemployed workers conducted under the Manpower Development and Training Act (MDTA) can be of aid both to farmworkers who need to keep abreast of the changing skill demands of modern agriculture and to farm people who need to prepare for nonfarm occupations.

Special recognition is given in MDTA programs to the needs of small farm operators who are employed but have inadequate incomes. Members of farm families with less than $1,200 annual income are considered unemployed under the act and are therefore eligible for training allowances (provided they meet other requirements applying to all unemployed workers).

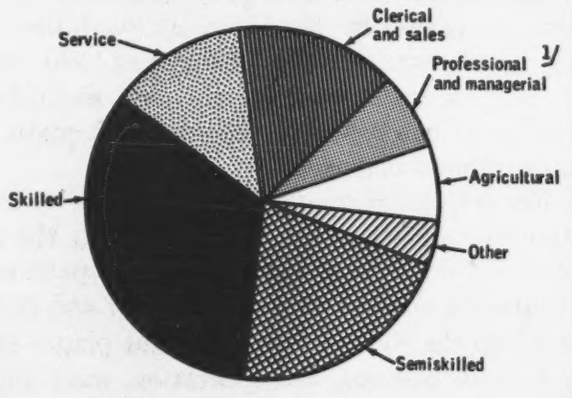
[11] See the chapter on Young Workers for a further discussion of this program.

By the end of 1965, training had been authorized for an estimated 100,000 farm and nonfarm workers in rural areas—about one-fourth of the total number of training approvals. One out of every eight of the rural trainees was past 45 and more than one-third were under 22. The large majority (7 out of 10) were men, who have been prepared chiefly for skilled or semiskilled blue-collar jobs. The women have been trained primarily for clerical, sales, and service jobs. (See chart 25.)

Only about 15,000 of the half million trainees authorized under the MDTA (and also the smaller Area Redevelopment Act training program) through September 30, 1965, were trained for agricultural work. This small group was made up primarily of unemployed or underemployed workers with farm backgrounds, for whom acquisition of advanced agricultural skills offered the best hope of satisfactory employment. Three out of five of these trainees had never progressed beyond the eighth grade. The proportion aged 45 or over was exceptionally high—nearly 30 percent—and only 17 percent were youth under 22. One-fourth of these trainees were nonwhite. Most had very low earnings in their last regular employment or had never had any regular employment at all.

Chart 25 **Most MDTA enrollees in rural areas take training for nonfarm occupations.**

Percent of MDTA trainees in rural areas trained for specified occupations, fiscal year 1965



1/ Training in professional occupations under the MDTA is limited to refresher training, designed to provide, for example, the updating of knowledge and techniques which professional nurses may need to reenter employment.

Source: U.S. Department of Labor.

The types of agricultural occupations for which these trainees have been equipped reflect current job trends in agriculture. Over half (55 percent) have been trained for relatively skilled agricultural jobs, such as farm equipment operator, dairyman, foreman, and tree pruner. Approximately one-fourth have been small farm operators learning to improve their own farm operations.

Another fifth of the trainees enrolled in agricultural courses have been equipped for occupations generally found in an urban or nonfarm setting. These jobs include nursery attendants, park caretakers, and gardeners. Demand in these occupations is rising and offers opportunities for people with farm backgrounds to make a gradual transition to off-farm work.

Much remains to be done, however, in adapting the MDTA training program to the needs of farmworkers, within the limits of budgetary resources. Training for migratory workers, small tenant farmers, and other groups with special problems in the agricultural job market has been limited to date, and attention is being given to strengthening the MDTA program in this area.

Experimental and Demonstration Projects

A number of experimental and demonstration (E&D) projects conducted under the MDTA have also focused on rural manpower problems. These have been sponsored by land grant colleges, church groups such as the Migrant Ministry of the National Council of Churches, and other private or public organizations. The emphasis has been on developing new ways of reaching and gaining the confidence of disadvantaged farm people, of teaching needed skills, and of overcoming cultural obstacles to steady employment of the individuals involved. Intensive job development efforts have been made also.

The shift from farm to nonfarm work often involves a much more complex adjustment than the mere acquisition of new vocational skills. It may require a change from outdoor to indoor activity, from physical labor to sedentary work, or from

work with heavy tools to the use of delicate instruments, as well as a shift from rural to urban life.

Where farm people have been trained for nonfarm jobs, particularly away from their home area, E&D projects have found that the skill training often must be accompanied by other services in order to achieve effective preparation for urban work. These services may include intensive counseling, training in hygiene or proper food habits, preparation for social demands of an industrial workplace and community, individual tutoring, and remedial education. For migratory farmworkers, it has been found useful to provide housing for entire family groups near the training site, to help with transportation arrangements, and to arrange for a flexible training schedule adapted to variations in seasonal labor requirements.

Mobility Demonstration Projects

Labor mobility demonstration projects, also conducted under the MDTA, permit a start toward testing and demonstrating ways of assisting underemployed farm people who must move away from home in order to find suitable employment. In the past, the unguided migration of millions of farmworkers into nonfarm areas has often led to personal hardship rather than significant economic upgrading, to increases in urban unemployment rather than filling of vacant jobs, and to strain on community facilities rather than enrichment of local resources.

The first MDTA relocation projects included several to help small numbers of farm people move to urban or rural areas with labor shortages. The numbers of workers involved are as yet too small to offer any firm conclusions, but some of the tentative initial findings are promising.

One finding has been that specific relocation assistance can induce some hitherto immobile unemployed workers to move to take a job elsewhere. Experience on the initial projects also indicates that job-finding and other assistance can guide workers to areas with job openings and can reduce the economic and other problems of adjustment to a new area.

The initial projects have indicated, however, that training to provide needed skills is often a prerequisite for effective relocation. There is strong evidence also that, for many who do relocate, a series of supportive services is necessary to help prepare for the move and to aid in settling-in and meeting unanticipated problems in an unfamiliar urban setting. Housing and transportation difficulties are a particular threat to the effectiveness of many relocation efforts unless special assistance is provided.

Additional mobility demonstration projects for rural workers are now in progress in several regions of the country, and are experimenting with varied degrees and forms of financial, preparatory, and settling-in assistance. They should provide a factual basis for enlarged efforts to facilitate the relocation of jobless or underemployed farmworkers and to ease the problems involved for the workers, their families, and the communities to which they go.

PROGRAMS TO EXPAND JOB OPPORTUNITIES

The economic development programs of recent years have aimed to create new labor demands in areas of low income or persistent unemployment or underemployment—rural and urban alike. The purpose has been to enable people to earn a decent living in their home community. Farm areas, with their decreasing employment and heavy out-migration, have been among the major beneficiaries of these programs.

Area and Regional Development

The Area Redevelopment Act of 1961 (ARA) was a pioneering effort to provide Federal Government assistance for the economic rehabilitation of depressed areas. It also encouraged local communities to analyze their human and economic resources and to develop plans for systematic self-improvement programs.

For designated "redevelopment areas" with substantial and persistent unemployment, the ARA program, administered by the U.S. Department of Commerce, made available financial assistance to build up the communities' physical plants (sewer and water systems, transportation, etc.) and authorized loans for industrial expansion. In rural areas, new industries and the employment and cash income they provided were expected to cut down the rate of out-migration and help farm families break through the poverty cycle. The ARA also

provided short-term occupational training for unemployed and underemployed workers, under which several thousand farmworkers were equipped with marketable job skills.

The program benefited many enterprises in industries such as wood products, food processing, and recreation services, which draw much of their work force from nearby farms and small communities. Many other industries—including machinery, apparel, chemicals, transportation, and trade—were also heavily represented among those given incentives to set up establishments in rural areas or small communities. Altogether, of the $322 million spent under the ARA program for all types of economic assistance, $168.9 million—slightly over half—went to assist rural areas.

The economic development program established by the Public Works and Economic Development Act of 1965 draws heavily on experience under the ARA. But some new approaches and shifts of emphasis are expected to increase the effectiveness of Federal assistance for economic development.

The Congress authorized $3.25 billion to be used for economic development programs conducted under this act over a 5-year period. Of this total, $2.0 billion would be for public works grants to help depressed areas improve their physical plants (sewer and water systems, access roads, and other public facilities) when needed to stimulate economic expansion and create additional long-term job opportunities. The new act also provides for business loans and for expanded technical assistance and research programs—all designed to promote industrial development and create jobs.

Not only is the new program more adequately financed than the ARA program but also two new features—multicounty districts and multistate regional planning commissions—should benefit rural areas. The economic development program retains the redevelopment area as the basic unit for financial aid. But two or more such areas may be combined into a "district" so that programs of broader geographical scope may be planned and carried out. Starting in fiscal year 1967, special financial assistance will be given to economic development "centers" identified in the programs of these districts. These centers are communities of not more than 250,000, geographically and economically related to the district. They must have a growth potential, so that special programs for district cooperation, self-help, and public investment may be developed.

Experience has shown that economic development in urban centers which have the industries, facilities, and services required to attract and accommodate growth will benefit nearby depressed rural areas which, by themselves, could not hope to generate or attract new job opportunities. Unemployed or underemployed rural people will be able to commute to new jobs in the nearest economic development center. Construction and improvement of roads may facilitate such commuting.

Designation of multistate regions and establishment of regional planning commissions is authorized by the new act for groups of States which are related geographically, culturally, historically, and economically and which have lagged behind the Nation in economic development. As with districts, the regional concept provides for a broader, more realistic and flexible approach to the economic problems of depressed farming areas, urban communities, and their people.

Rural Areas Development Program

The Rural Areas Development (RAD) program of the Department of Agriculture helps to alleviate manpower problems in rural areas through community and human resources development and the stimulation of new job opportunities. An important approach has been to aid in the formation of representative local development groups, to assist them in evaluating area needs and planning improvements, and to mobilize government resources in a coordinated effort to achieve these goals.

At the county level, the extension staff and other specialists, working in conjunction with Technical Action Panels [12] of the Department of Agriculture, help the local development organization to plan RAD projects. These have a variety of related objectives—expanding job opportunities, providing job training, creating new industries, developing recreation enterprises, adjusting land-use patterns, preserving and improving family

[12] The Department of Agriculture agencies that operate offices in rural counties form Technical Action Panels (TAP's) in each rural county, as well as in each State. The TAP comprises the top-ranking official of each of the Department of Agriculture agencies in the field, principally the Farmers Home Administration, the Soil Conservation Service, the Forest Service, and the Agricultural Stabilization and Conservation Service. State and local agencies which cooperate with other Department of Agriculture agencies such as the Extension Service and State conservation or forestry departments, also serve on the TAP.

farms, improving community facilities (water and sewer systems, hospitals, training centers), and aiding in the elimination of rural poverty.

A Cabinet-level Rural Development Committee, with the Secretary of Agriculture as Chairman, was established by President Kennedy in November 1963, to provide a closer working relationship among all Federal agencies with activities pertinent to the development of rural areas. A Rural Community Development Service (RCDS) was also set up in early 1965 by the Secretary of Agriculture to provide further stimulation and coordination of services.

With added resources provided in the 1966 budget, the RCDS is undertaking a new outreach approach, under which it will work with other Federal agencies to assure that rural people have full access to needed services. Field staff of the Department of Agriculture will help rural residents make effective use of government services, while the RCDS Washington and State staff will followup and expedite the processing by other agencies of applications and projects from rural communities. For more comprehensive solutions to the problems of rural communities, RCDS and other agencies will develop plans for "packages" of programs combining services of various Government agencies.

A number of important steps have already been taken toward further economic development, job creation, and better utilization of manpower in farming areas. Under the pilot Rural Renewal Program and other programs of the Department of Agriculture, loans and grants have been made for studying and improving land utilization and other resources. Public information programs have been expanded, including workshops to inform rural leaders about existing services, encouragement of broader representation in community development organizations, and efforts to make government services more readily available to disadvantaged people. Rural communities have been helped to plan and conduct economic development and training programs. Research, technical, and financial assistance has been provided for developing recreation industries in rural areas. The Farmers Home Administration has maintained an extensive program of loans for improving rural housing and community facilities and for encouraging farm ownership. And rural cooperatives have been aided in enlarging farm employment and income potentials.

The results have demonstrated that local people, when given technical and financial assistance, can mount an effective attack on the economic and social problems of their rural communities.

WAR ON POVERTY PROGRAMS

The problem of poverty in the United States stems in large part from the poverty of farmers and farmworkers. The proportion of families with incomes below the threshold of poverty is twice as high among those headed by farm operators as among all families in the population, and is much higher still among families headed by hired farmworkers. And although most farm people have made good adjustments when they have moved into nonfarm jobs and urban areas, movement of uneducated, unskilled workers from farms has added to unemployment and poverty in city slums.

For this reason, several War on Poverty programs are aimed specifically at the needs of the rural poor. And many farm people are benefiting directly or indirectly from other programs.

Youth Programs

The Neighborhood Youth Corps (NYC) has made special efforts to include rural youth in its work-experience programs for disadvantaged young people aged 16 to 21.[13] During 1965, more than 1,400 NYC projects were in operation; they provided work opportunities for approximately 500,000 individual youth. Rural projects represented over a third of all projects and accounted for a fourth of the enrollees.

Recruitment of rural in-school youth was found to present no particular problem, but recruitment of out-of-school youth was difficult because of the dispersed population and, in many instances, the absence of a central community organization. In addition to the regular efforts of NYC field staff to reach these youth, statewide NYC projects were implemented through the cooperation of the Department of Agriculture and its field offices.

Work performed by NYC enrollees in rural projects included assignments in schools and other

[13] See the chapter on Young Workers for a further discussion of the Neighborhood Youth Corps and other youth programs mentioned here.

public buildings, in State forests and parks, and on highway projects. During the summer, many NYC enrollees did a variety of jobs which furthered the President's Beautification Program. These included planting trees and shrubs along highways, cleaning debris in forests, developing picnic and recreation facilities, and developing and improving scenic overlooks.

The NYC program has been especially helpful to youth in rural areas, enabling many to earn needed income to remain in or return to school. For others it has provided useful work experience and offered assistance in planning realistically for their future. The rural communities have benefited because the wages earned by the youth increased family income, thereby improving the general economic situation.

Some jobless farm youth are enrolled in the Job Corps. This residential work-training program is of special value for those from underprivileged homes who need a change of environment in order to benefit from training. The adjustment of rural youth is facilitated by assignment to rural conservation camps as a transitional step before entering intensive vocational training.

Farm youth qualified for higher education also benefit from the work-study program authorized by the Economic Opportunity Act. This provides part-time work to help needy students complete their college education.

Assistance to Migrants and Other Seasonal Farmworkers

Migrants and other seasonal farmworkers are now being helped by projects conducted by State and local governments and private nonprofit agencies, with financial aid under the Economic Opportunity Act. These projects are aimed at providing and improving housing, sanitation, education, and programs for child care. They are aiding migrant farmworkers in their home base areas in Texas, California, other Southwestern States, and in Florida, and in many areas where they do seasonal farmwork. Projects have also been undertaken to serve seasonal farmworkers who do not migrate. By December 31, 1965, an estimated 150,000 workers and their dependents had been served in 27 States.

Emphasis has been placed on projects which are aimed at longrun solutions to the problems of farmworkers, enlist the support and self-help efforts of the workers themselves, and also help to mobilize local community services. Among the types of projects which have been conducted are:

—Self-help housing and housing improvement programs.

—Accelerated school programs to shorten the school year for children of migrants.

—Enrichment of school programs and remedial summer school work for youth.

—Adult education programs—with stipends for full-time, offseason participation—including literacy training and other basic education, and instruction in the rights and responsibilities of citizenship, credit management, consumer education, homemaking, prevocational orientation, and leadership.

—Vocational training programs for adults.

—Experiments with demountable housing units for migratory workers.

—Day-care centers for preschool children.

—Extension of library services to migratory children.

—Rest-stop facilities along routes heavily traveled by migrant families.

Community Action Programs in Rural Areas

Since the causes and problems of poverty in rural areas are complex, solutions require many different approaches and depend to a large extent on the efforts and resources of the rural community itself. For these reasons, the coordinated approach to community problems envisaged in the Community Action Program (CAP) is particularly valuable in helping to meet the needs of poor individuals and families in rural areas.[14]

Of the total of $313.6 million approved for local use in carrying out Community Action Projects through 1965, $56.8 million (18 percent) has gone to farm and rural nonfarm areas. These funds are supporting the efforts of some 320 community action agencies working in 650 rural counties.

In rural projects, emphasis is on multicounty organization, and the agencies coordinating the programs must include representatives of farmers,

[14] See the chapter on Unused Manpower Resources and Their Development for a further discussion of this program.

farmworkers, and other rural people. Services provided include assistance in obtaining employment, training, and counseling; health and vocational rehabilitation services; housing and home management programs; welfare services; and remedial education. Stress is on the long-term unemployed, the underemployed, minority group workers, older workers, migratory laborers, and others at a special disadvantage in the job market. Low-income communities which have been stalemated in economic and population growth also can benefit from the community action approach.

Rural CAP's encounter many problems not met in urban communities. Since most people in rural areas have relatively little experience with Federal Government programs other than those of agricultural agencies, they require considerable technical assistance. They often need help in forming representative local organizations, reviewing area needs, developing and proposing projects to raise community employment and income levels, and conducting self-help programs. In some areas, problems of race relations, poor communication, and lack of technically trained people are additional obstacles to effective organization and action.

These are pervasive problems, and solutions are not easy to achieve. Technical assistance and training, patiently and persistently provided, have proved the most fruitful means of getting good intentions to materialize into community programs.

An illustrative case history of how CAP's are actually used to help farm people can be drawn from a Southeastern State. In a county where average family income is very low and tobacco has been the only crop, the CAP has helped a group of 70 farmers to form a cooperative to grow and market strawberries. A CAP-employed agronomist teaches strawberry culture and has assisted the co-op members in applying for a Farmers Home Administration loan to construct a processing plant for the berries. Many of the members have also received individual FHA loans so that they can join the co-op and buy necessary materials.

The local community action organization is in the process of negotiating a loan from the Small Business Administration to begin a cooperative for contract sewing work. Matching funds have been raised in the community for this program, which will provide 60 jobs with a monthly payroll of $40,000. It is anticipated that employment will eventually total 150.

Credit for Rural Businessmen

Poor rural families and rural cooperatives have access to a new source of credit, provided by the Economic Opportunity Act with the condition that this assistance may not supplant that available from other sources. These loans increase the productivity of farmers and other small businessmen who, for lack of capital, are producing much less than their potential.

Loans to farmers are made to enable them to buy real estate or improve the operation and financial stability of family farms. By the end of 1965, some $16 million had been loaned to about 9,500 farm families, out of a total of some $27 million loaned to all rural families. (See table 27.)

TABLE 27. LOANS TO RURAL ENTERPRISES UNDER THE ECONOMIC OPPORTUNITY ACT, THROUGH DECEMBER 31, 1965

Type of loan	Number of loans	Amount (millions)
Total	16,257	$30.4
Individual economic opportunity loans	16,019	27.3
Agricultural [1]	9,494	15.9
Nonagricultural	6,525	11.4
Loans to economic cooperatives	238	3.1

[1] Loans to farmers for both agricultural and nonagricultural purposes are included in agricultural.

Loans to rural economic cooperatives—primarily farmer cooperatives—provide their members with new income opportunities. They have, for example, helped small farmers to buy machinery that none of them could afford alone. Some $3 million had been loaned to 238 cooperatives by the end of 1965.

The demand for both individual loans and loans to cooperatives under this program greatly exceeds available resources.

Other Educational and Training Opportunities

Relatively low educational attainment among hired farmworkers and farm operators, particularly the older adults, can be ameliorated by the Adult Basic Education Program, also established by the Economic Opportunity Act. This program teaches people aged 18 or over to read and write, gives them remedial education in arithmetic and other basic subjects, and thus helps them qualify for better jobs or for occupational training courses.

The Work-Experience Program for people on public assistance is another War on Poverty program which can be of special benefit to seasonal farmworkers who are supported by public assistance part of the year.[15]

Conclusions and Recommendations

The special message on rural poverty transmitted by the President to the Congress on January 25, 1966, makes plain the need for greatly strengthened economic and human resources development programs for rural farm and nonfarm people. Significant progress has been made under recent government programs in helping farmworkers and their families adjust to agriculture's changing manpower requirements. But there are still major gaps in the services needed to aid workers in this adjustment, and also to assist both rural and urban communities in dealing with the attendant social and economic problems. The following steps to improve programs and strengthen services deserve urgent consideration.

EDUCATION AND TRAINING

Basic to any longrun solution of agricultural manpower problems is the strengthening of rural education and training resources. As emphasized earlier in this chapter, educational opportunities in farm areas have been greatly deficient as compared to those in urban communities—with inevitable consequences in the limited educational attainment of farm people.

The Elementary and Secondary Education Act of 1965 [16] provides a new opportunity for reducing the handicaps in schooling imposed on rural youth. More diversified vocational training for rural youth has also been made possible by the Vocational Education Act of 1963. Planning of the new area vocational-technical schools financed by the 1963 act should give special emphasis to means for effectively equipping farm and nonfarm youngsters with the skills they need to compete for the increasingly complex jobs of both agricultural and nonagricultural industries.

In economic and manpower development in rural areas, the training provided farmers and other rural people by the Cooperative Extension Service of the Department of Agriculture should have a key role. The service, through cooperative relationships with Federal, State and local government agencies and land grant universities, gives instruction in four major fields—agricultural business, youth programs, home economics, and community and resource development. A substantial number of low-income people are and should be included in the group served.

The beginnings made under the MDTA in occupational training of unemployed farmworkers should also be continued and expanded. Further experimentation should be undertaken in the training of migratory farm laborers, small farmers, and other farm people facing especially difficult problems in the changing agricultural economy. Preparation of displaced farmworkers for nonfarm occupations in which there is demand for additional manpower should be emphasized.

Opportunities for apprenticeships in skilled trades are now very limited in rural areas. Possible mechanisms for opening apprenticeships to qualified rural youth and, if necessary, helping these youth to move where the openings exist should be considered by Government and private agencies responsible for promoting apprenticeship programs and for planning economic development programs.

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[15] See the chapter on Unused Manpower Resources and Their Development for a discussion of this program.

[16] See the chapter on Young Workers for a further discussion of this act.

ECONOMIC AND JOB DEVELOPMENT IN RURAL AREAS

Progress in economic development of rural areas, or of community development districts composed of associated rural and urban areas, offers a means of ameliorating agricultural manpower problems. Additional job opportunities developed locally in nonfarm industries help to offset the continuing decline in agricultural employment and to reduce the economic pressure on farm people to move to cities.

Job development programs in rural areas should emphasize the needs of the three-fifths of the Nation's farmers aged 45 or over. Small farmers in this age group, many of whom have substandard incomes, face special difficulties in making a successful shift to nonfarm employment, and it is not realistic to think that a high proportion of them will migrate to urban areas.

To insure that rural communities have full access to Federally assisted manpower and antipoverty programs, the Federal Government should, in cooperation with State agencies, provide intensive technical assistance and adequate funds for planning and development activities. These steps will stimulate the emergence of expert leadership and effective development organizations in rural areas. In this connection, expansion of the work of the Department of Agriculture's Rural Communities Development Service should be facilitated.

Better coordination of activities under the various agricultural and manpower programs should also be sought. To take an obvious example, programs to develop new jobs in rural areas should be accompanied by programs to train the manpower needed to fill these jobs.

A pilot program undertaken recently at the recommendation of the Rural Area Development Committee can point the way to effective mobilization and coordination of government services in agricultural areas. This pilot program, termed Concerted Services in Training and Education, is demonstrating how the resources of Federal, State, and local government agencies can be combined to help solve difficult unemployment, education, housing, health, and welfare problems in rural areas with high unemployment and low-income levels. If the program is successful, its procedures should be extended to other rural areas with acute problems.

REGULARIZATION OF EMPLOYMENT FOR FARMWORKERS

There is an urgent need for new measures to rationalize the job market for seasonal farmworkers and provide them more regular employment. Such measures are essential to reduce unemployment among hired farmworkers and to attack the roots of their economic and social problems. They will also benefit farm employers by building a skilled and productive work force and helping to meet their labor needs in a reliable and systematic way.

The Department of Labor's Annual Worker Plan (described earlier in this chapter), should be extended to cover all States using significant numbers of migratory farmworkers. Attention should be focused also on developing new mechanisms to provide year-round employment, such as (a) incentives for farm employers to work together in providing year-round employment by the systematic transfer of employees among seasonal farm jobs; (b) government assistance in recruiting, sheltering, assigning, and transporting temporary farmhands; and (c) ways of helping rural communities develop nonfarm work opportunities timed to fill the gaps between peak agricultural seasons.

FURTHER REDUCTION OF FOREIGN LABOR AND INTENSIFIED RECRUITMENT PROGRAMS

Dramatic success in cutting back the employment of foreign workers on U.S. farms during 1965 should be followed up in 1966 and subsequent years. Use of foreign workers should be limited to only a relatively small number of severe labor shortage situations in which employers who offer adequate wages and working conditions and who engage in intensive recruitment programs have nonetheless been unable to attract a domestic work force.

Experience gained in intensifying domestic worker recruitment programs to replace foreign labor in 1965 should be utilized to improve such programs in coming seasons. Evaluation of 1965 recruitment activities plainly indicates the need to:

—Plan and initiate recruitment programs well in advance of the agricultural season.

—Arrange close cooperation and exchanges of

information between employers and government recruitment agencies.

—Develop and apply systematic procedures for selecting farmworkers, particularly among youth and among people who never before engaged in hired farmwork.

—Administer systematic training to inexperienced workers.

—Provide housing adapted to the need of the particular types of families or individuals to be recruited.

—Train and orient farm labor supervisors.

—Provide adequate wage incentives.

Successful programs to recruit domestic farmworkers must be based on accurate information about manpower requirements and the number and characteristics of potential workers. Continuous improvement of the sources and analysis of this information should be emphasized by the Federal, State, and local agencies concerned with farm labor recruitment.

LABOR STANDARDS AND INCOME SECURITY FOR FARMWORKERS

Of all major groups in the labor force, farmworkers have been accorded the least protection under labor standards and social insurance legislation. They are excluded from the wage and hour provisions of the Fair Labor Standards Act and from most State minimum wage laws. Their right to organize and bargain collectively is not protected under the Labor Management Relations Act, nor under most State labor relations laws. They are also excluded from unemployment insurance and workmen's compensation in most States, though their low incomes, intermittent employment, and often hazardous work create a substantial need for such protection.

The national objective should be to achieve for farmworkers the kind of protection which has come to be accepted for nonfarm manpower. More specifically:

1. Unemployment insurance should be extended to farm wage workers, beginning with those on larger farms. According to 1963 estimates, coverage of workers employed on farms using 300 or more man-days of hired farm labor in a calendar quarter would affect little more than 2 percent of all farms, but these establishments accounted for almost two-thirds of all man-days of farm labor. Consideration should also be given to coverage for the approximately 200,000 currently excluded workers engaged in agricultural processing.

2. Further consideration should be given to ways of improving the protection of farmworkers under the Old Age, Survivors, and Disability Insurance program (OASDI). Experience in covering farmworkers under OASDI, including the extent to which migratory labor crew leaders are meeting their responsibilities for deducting, matching, and forwarding OASDI payroll taxes, should be carefully reviewed to strengthen the effectiveness of the law.

3. Protection of farmworkers under State workmen's compensation laws is another subject which should receive active consideration.

4. Careful consideration should be given to the need for amending the Fair Labor Standards Act to provide minimum wage protection for farmworkers and to prohibit the hiring of young children in agriculture outside of school hours. (At present, a child of any age can do wage work in agriculture, no matter how hazardous, outside of school hours.)

5. Consideration should also be given to legislation for protecting the rights of farmworkers to form and join unions and to bargain collectively with their employers.

6. The problems involved in public assistance for people who engage in seasonal farmwork also need intensive study. It is important to insure, for example, that workers on public assistance are not deterred from accepting seasonal farm jobs by the difficulty of qualifying for assistance again at the end of the season; also that those who engage in seasonal farmwork continue to be eligible for training, health care, and other supplemental services essential to a long-range solution to their problems. Possible modification of State residence requirements which may bar migratory workers from greatly needed aid is another problem warranting careful study. It is recommended that these and related problems regarding assistance to farmworkers be considered by the present Task Force on Public Assistance of the Department of Health, Education, and Welfare.

FARMWORKER HOUSING

The housing of migratory and other seasonal farmworkers presents serious problems. Lack of adequate housing has made it difficult to recruit qualified domestic farmworkers, has created significant health and safety hazards, and has impaired living standards for many farmworker families. Prompt attention should be given to approaches for assisting farm operators, local governments, and community organizations to provide comfortable and sanitary quarters, with emphasis on family-type dwellings adapted to the needs of migratory farmworkers. Resources of existing Federal programs for aiding farm labor housing should be fully utilized and expanded. Federal agencies concerned with farm labor should encourage State and local governments to tighten and enforce farm labor housing codes. Experimentation with building techniques, arrangements, and financing should be intensified to develop new ways of meeting short-term housing needs effectively.

MIGRATION FROM FARM TO NONFARM AREAS

The migration of farm people to urban areas will continue to be substantial for some time. Attention should be given, therefore, to ways to reduce haphazard, ill-directed migration and aid the adjustment of migrants in the cities receiving them.

Counseling services need to be expanded in rural schools, in order to inform youth better about urban employment opportunities and the preparation these require, and to aid them in evaluating their own aptitudes and interests.

The availability of public employment services in rural areas should be greatly increased. The aim should be to give potential migrants information on job opportunities elsewhere and on housing and other conditions at their destinations and also to help them make advance job arrangements.

The labor mobility demonstration projects authorized by the MDTA provide a means of exploring the problems faced by farmworkers in moving to nonfarm jobs and communities and the ways in which these problems can be alleviated. Projects involving rural people should continue to be emphasized in this pilot program.

RESEARCH AND PLANNING

New resources for research and experimental projects made available under the Manpower Development and Training Act, the Economic Opportunity Act, and other legislation provide an opportunity to expand our knowledge of agriculture's human resources. Study of the characteristics and problems of farm people can help to develop effective programs tailored to their special needs. Of particular importance is the need to anticipate technological change in agriculture, so that manpower programs can be planned in advance to aid workers likely to be affected by such change. More research is needed also on such subjects as the needs and experience of out-migrants, the problems of older farm operators, the career choices of farm youth, and ways to meet the critical housing needs of migratory farmworkers and their families.

Noteworthy progress toward a comprehensive review of agriculture policies and needs and the development of forward-looking programs was made recently through the appointment by the President of two new Commissions. The National Advisory Commission on Food and Fiber [17] will make an intensive review of the fundamental problems and policies of agriculture and current economic trends, including productivity, costs, prices, income, farm employment, labor standards, and related matters. The Commission is to submit recommendations by mid-1967. The second Commission was announced in the President's special message to the Congress in January 1966. Termed the Commission on Rural Poverty, it is scheduled to make recommendations to the President, within one year of its appointment, covering means of eradicating rural poverty.

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[17] Created by Executive Order 11256, November 4, 1965.

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